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EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE.—

(*Concluded from page* 171.)

The reader will readily gather from what has preceded that we wish all the branches of art and science to be united, and look upon every scheme of education which falls short of this to be radically defective. We have endeavoured to show that the highest advances of theory ultimately amalgamated with the arts, and facilitated their advance. And, consequently, the greatest advantage which we expect from the diffusion of knowledge, next to the moral effect on the labourer, is this of forming a more intimate connection between the several branches of physical knowledge: even the tendency of such diffusion to increase the number of superior minds, by enlarging the class from which they may arise, is, we think, of subordinate importance. In general the present ideas on education favour this result, but not without some occasional exceptions. In England a notion has grown much into fashion that the higher branches of mathematics are useless; we find, in a late practical work, some attempts to discredit fluxions, and the editor of the Repertory of patent inventions, or whoever was the reviewer of this recent work of Dr. GREGORY in that periodical, has expressed an antipathy to algebra which, combined with his hints of having succeeded in life without it, will remind our readers of a scene in the Vicar of Wakfield. He observes that many "who from their knowledge of the other sciences, and of ancient and modern languages, are well entitled to be called learned, hold algebra in but little esteem, from its fatigue to the attention, and load to the memory, which renders it so much more liable to error than the other modes of investigation, and therefore have as little to do with it as possible: consequently, this seasoning of algebra, with which the author has so liberally supplied his book, to make it palatable to the learned, as professed in the preface, will not be, we apprehend, so generally acceptable to that body as he supposed; and even of the learned men who practice algebra, we have no doubt there are many who would have felt *no disgust* whatsoever at a book intended for the instruction of the uninformed, prepared according to Mr. BROUGHAM's advice, on a foundation of arithmetic solely, and therefore unincumbered with algebra."

"As it may be very discouraging to many artists who may wish to acquire useful knowledge, to have it held out to them that they must study algebra before they can even enter the porch of science, we beg of them not to be in any way disheartened on this account, for we can assure them that they can acquire a very competent knowledge of all the other sciences and scientific subjects, enumerated at the head of this paper, besides several others, without troubling themselves in any respect with algebra: and therefore so far from delaying their studies, in order to learn it before they proceed further, we should recommend them not to hesitate, but at once to bestow that time which is so precious to them, on the sciences more immediately beneficial to their interests; and in corroboration of

this recommendation, let them only recollect the stupendous works executed by Brindley, in the Manchester canal; the wonderful machinery contrived by Arkwright, and its prodigious effects on the trade of this kingdom; and the very curious and beautiful engines and mill work for making lace, more recently invented and brought into such extensive use by Mr. Heathcoat, *all without the smallest assistance from algebra:* and we imagine they will not hesitate to think it not quite so indespensable to them as the learned professor supposes."

Here are many of those mistaken notions on popular education to which we have alluded, arising, as they commonly do, from over partiality towords the modes of study which professional habits have endeared. Such "errors of the den" are not to be charged against practical men only—they have been universal, and have done more to retard the progress of knowledge than any other cause whatever. In France, a similar feeling caused the sublime analysis, which in the hands of LAPLACE and LAGRANGE, led to such important results, to be degraded until it became ridiculous; we could point out many instances—the treatise of GIDARR on the resistance of solids, of BOSSUT on the masting and storing of ships, the essay by the same author on the steam engine; even the memoir upon the strength of columns by LAGRANGE, and much of the investigations of PRONY will deserve censure, when regarded as merely applying to the arts. But are these defects of method, or of application? Has Dr. YOUNG, whom the editor of the Repertory triumphantly quotes, as the advocate of the synthesis over analysis, or Professor LESLIE, who unites with him in abusing the "steam engine analysis" of the present day, have they shewn the superiority of other methods? We would undertake to cull from the thousand and one works of Dr. YOUNG, more mistakes in theory and practice, and more instances of affected obscurity, than would be found in any other author of his undoubted ability; we will refer to the articles Bridge and Tides in the supplement to the Encyclopedia Britannica, to the memoir on Sepping's diagonal framing, in the transactions of the Royal Society, to the formulæ for refractions in the Nautical Almanac, and to a paper on magnetism published a few years back, and which, as far as it could be understood was incorrect from the beginning to the end.

But the notions of YOUNG or LESLIE will have little effect on the diffusion of knowledge; that is in the hands of the master manufacturers, the leading engineers, and others who direct the arts; if this highly respectable body, on whom the greatest nations are now dependant, will act with a liberality becoming their vast importance, dismiss from their minds all *esprit du corps*, and freely unite their labours with those of the philosopher, the chemist, and the mathematician, all the arts will advance rapidly towards that degree of perfection which astronomy, and geodesical operations have obtained by similiar means. The highest branches of science will, as heretofore, extend the boundaries of knowledge, and methodise those which are below them. These rendered practical by information gained from art, and simplified to the use of those devoted to it, will become powerful instruments in their hands. Lastly, the elements of science, taught to operative mechanics in a manner suited to the little time they have to spare, will enable them to comprehend the rationale of the operations they perform; rendering them capable of imparting the knowledge they possess, extending their skill, and, above all, elevating their character.

It may be asked, are the recent institutions for educating mechanics likely to effect this division of labour? We think they are. But some defects may be pointed out in the present constitution of those admirable societies. One fault, we think they have; they want a second branch in which a higher education than that of the mere operative mechanic could be obtained; and which might form an intermediate link between the popular branch of the institution, and the highes literary societies. The members of this branch would be usefully employed as 'ol

lows—In endeavouring to approximate the several arts, in explaining their general principles, and rendering their phraseology as comprehensive as possible. In forming a technological dictionary. In classifying the facts which occur in the arts, pointing out what difficulties have been removed, and what remain. In publishing a detailed account of all the chief works of art whether completed, or in hand, and lastly in making original experiments in the workshops of the institutions.

Were it found possible to establish such a class, their labours might enable their societies, besides the journals now issued or patronised by them, to publish periodical works of a higher character, admission of communication into which would become an object of emulation, and serve, at the same time, to reward talent, and create a body of men whose acquaintance with science and art could not fail to extend the part of our knowledge which is most deficient—that of applied science. The highest branches of science have attained a rank which does credit to the human understanding, and great advances have been made in every thing which concerns manual, or mechanical, operations; but the union of the two is still wanted; and this union could be best effected by a triple division of knowledge, into science, applied science, and art.

That such a division is wanting must have occurred to all who believe in the possibility of uniting theory and practice. Theorists have been deterred from assisting practical men by the difficulty of learning what were the real wants of art, and practical men could not avail themselves of theory from the pressing emergencies of their professions, which admit of no leisure for such researches. Working for a subsistence, the labourer has no time to investigate principles, he must do his work according to an invariable routine, or it may not be done at all, and one such failure brings distress upon his family. Those who have been in the habit of seeing large bodies of people brought together, and toiling for their daily bread, will be aware how strongly this pressure of immediate want acts upon the labourer, and will perhaps doubt with us the benefit which science is able to afford the labouring mechanic in his ordinary avocations; of its moral effect, and the chance which it will afford men of superior abilities to elevate themselves to the stations for which nature has fitted them, we have spoken in the most confident manner.

Before leaving this subject we have a word or two to say upon the Franklin Institute. Its general principles and zeal entitle it to the warmest commendation, and its success shows those principles to be fundamentally correct; but there appears a desire for this institution to embrace too much, and to consolidate what ought to be separate. More weight and dignity would result from keeping the schools for the boys, and the lectures for the men, two of its objects, excellent in themselves, more widely asunder. In the notice for introducing the very department which we have been arguing for, the "high school department," there appear too, incorrect ideas concerning the nature of such a department. Ought not a branch of this kind to form a society, (not a mere school,) of practical men devoted to the highest parts of their profession? And what have they to do with Latin, Greek, French and Spanish? the subjects which the notice suggests as proper to be taught. But we have a still greater objection to uniting an institution of such modest and sober dignity as the Franklin Institute, with a society for an annual exhibition of arts and manufactures. Such societies would be valuable if they were well conducted, but it is a fact that they have hitherto been so managed as rapidly to degenerate into mere parade and shew; and why must an Institute of a different character be made, in some measure, dependent on their fate? In France the greatest quackery has pervaded these institutions, and though in England the society of arts has been better managed, yet, can it be shewn to have done any positive good? And on the contrary, has it not done much evil? Have not the prizes been

so lavishly disturbed that this currency has multiplied beyond the wants of the market, and consequently, depreciated in value, until a prize medal is worth little more than the gold or silver it contains? And, if this were the case in France or England, why must a similar institution here be yoked with another of more importance, and which does not contain within itself the same principles of decay? It is true that the exhibitions of art may be better managed here than in France or England, and may lead to highly beneficial results, but all such institutions have too much of shew about them to be of benefit to a society which should aim at the modest unpretending dignity of a scientific institution.

After these strictures we feel pleasure in noticing the journal which this society issues; it is, what it should be, a plain unpretending work, superior we think to the London Mechanic's Magazine, as containing fewer scientific speculations by persons who are little acquainted with science. But we should wish to see a portion of the journal devoted to demonstrating in a familiar way the application of science to the arts, and another part to giving a connected view of the arts and manufactures in this country. With the exception of a few pages in NICHOLSON's Operative Mechanic, this species of information has been neglected to an extent, which, when we consider its importance, is really astonishing. In *science* an account of every great undertaking is speedily published to the world; but in *the arts*, the most splendid and useful operations are only noticed as having been begun or finished. Of the means employed in effecting them, the difficulties which occurred in their progress, and the new ideas which are developed, we seldom hear any thing. Yet such descriptions would be eagerly received, not only by professional men, but by the world at large, who take more interest in works whose utility is obvious than they do in the more abstract inquiries of science. How interesting such works may be made has been shewn by DUPIN, who in his "Voyage dans la Grande-Bretagne" has continued to interest the general reader whilst he is conveying the most precise information to those who are capable of profiting by it. The astonishing accuracy of this writer can only be appreciated by a person who is thoroughly acquainted with the works he describes; in many parts of lively, yet clear, detail we have met with facts which are undoubtedly correct, and yet which we are sure were unknown to many professional men resident on the spot, and daily conversant with the objects he describes. C.C.

MAIDEN'S ADVENTURE.

Whenever any stream, mountain, or other topographical feature of our country bears an English, instead of an Indian name, that is not clearly descriptive, it has probably obtained such name, not by formal designation—by being christened on the spot—but by some accidental circumstance of interest at the time, which being frequently referred to in connection with the scene where it occurred, the spot gradually acquired a name from the incident with which it had been associated. Such, no doubt, has been the origin of *Bear Creek*, *Bull Run*, *Buck Branch*, *Elk Ridge*, *Turkey Cock Mountain*, and the like English names to be met with in every part of our country. In these cases the incident giving the name has probably been of a very common-place character, but now and then the quaintness of the name indicates a more remarkable origin, and we feel a lively curiosity to know the circumstances to which it owes its derivation. This process has already become very difficult, as the incidents of which we speak are no otherwise preserved than by the frail records of tradition; and by and by, it will be utterly impracticable. Accident has afforded me an explanation why the small stream, which has become so well known, as terminating the James River canal, is called *Maiden's* Adventure. I do not vouch for the truth of this account, but give it to you as it was given to me.

Having, a few years since, made a visit to a friend in Richmond, during the latter part of autumn, he invited me to take a ride up the canal, in which he felt a con-

siderable interest, both in behalf of the public and himself. After we had viewed every part of this useful work—its locks, culverts, dams &c—we found ourselves so fatigued when we reached Maiden's Adventure, then about five o'clock in the afternoon, that my friend proposed we should stay all night at a small house of private entertainment in the neighbourhood, which was kept by a widow, for whom he felt great respect, and who being now very poor, "he was glad of an opportunity of throwing any thing in her way,"—adding moreover, that we should have no cause to find fault with our accommodations. I readily acquiesced under this joint appeal to my benevolent and my selfish feelings, and we concluded not to return to Goochland Court house as we had proposed.

Turning our horses heads then, and ascending a gentle slope, we soon found ourselves at the door of a small low moss covered building, which several large oaks and sycamores screened with their shade in the summer, though they now covered the whole yard with their leaves.

Our horses were taken by a stout young man, whom my friend addressed by the name of "Dick," and we were met at the door by his mother, a fat elderly dame, whose countenance still showed the remains of former beauty, and who bustled about her house very briskly, notwithstanding a great shortness of breath. I was struck with the neatness of every thing I saw. The floor had been just sanded; the pewter had a silvery brightness; and the hearth, that unerring test of housewifely management and comfort, was critically nice, and a fire recently kindled was just beginning to blaze, as the increasing chilliness of an October evening made it comfortable.

After a few brief inquiries were made and answered on both sides, my friend said "have you got any good tea, Mrs. Burton?"

"You know, Colonel, I always keep a little for the gentlemen who visit the canal," and so saying, our hostess immediately rose from her chair, and going into the next room, addressed a few words to her daughter who was there spinning; and whose wheel immediately ceased its lugubrious hum.

The son having soon afterwards entered, and seated himself by the fire, my friend began to inquire of him about the progress of the canal, and of such of the contractors or workmen as he chanced to know; and the place, Maiden's Adventure, which was then new to my ears, being frequently mentioned, I was induced to inquire how its name was obtained.

"Upon my word," said the colonel, "I never thought of asking, but I suppose nobody now can tell—did you ever hear, Dick?"

"Ask mother, colonel, she can tell you. She has a long story about it."

"How is it Mrs. Burton?" said he, addressing our hostess, who had just entered the room.

Is it possible, colonel you do not know? Well, wait until you have had your supper, and I will tell you. I thought every body in Virginia, at least in these parts, had heard how this place came to be called *Maiden's Adventure*."

In no long time we were served up with a dish of excellent tea—fried chicken, slices of broiled ham—biscuits, butter, and milk all of the best quality; of which we partook with that zest which good appetites and good cookery confer, when, on our reminding our landlady of her promise, she thus began:

"I will tell you the story as I had it from my grandmother when I was a child. When she was a young woman she said her father had settled hereabouts, where game was plenty, and land to be had for nothing. All beyond the Green Mountain was then owned by the Indians, and they had some settlements as low as the Point of Fork. Near this spot, a rich man, a Major Allen, owned a large tract, which was then called *Order* land, I don't know why, except that I have heard it was granted to him by an order of the council.

He owned also a great many slaves, and made large crops of tobacco. Besides his own children, he had in his family an orphan son of a deceased sister, whom he had promised her, in her last moments, to take care of. The lad was however treated with harshness by his aunt, and the rest of the family except, his cousin Margaret who was nearly of his own age, were not slow to follow her example. But they say that adversity is a good school, and so it seemed with William Upton, for he was la genera favorite out of his Uncle's house, and was thought by all to be the flower of the flock.

Margaret's kind treatment in addition to

her being a very pretty girl, won upon his heart, and his attachment became too strong to be concealed from the rest of the family. Mrs. Allen was outrageous, and her husband sternly gave the young folks to understand that they were to indulge no such thoughts of one another. But this opposition you know, Colonel, is like water thrown upon fire; it extinguishes a weak flame, but makes a strong one burn the brighter.

Mr. Allen not liking to turn his nephew adrift in the world, and still less willing to let him continue an inmate in his house, took a middle course, and sent him across the river, as an overseer on a plantation of his in Powhatan. The cousins however still occasionally saw each other at church, or I should rather say at the meeting house, for there was no church here then, or when he came over to consult his uncle on business. My grandmother, who loved Peggy Allen as her own sister, said she used to carry messages between them.

One of Margaret's sisters having made herself a fine bedquilt of patch work, she was indulged with a quilting frolic, to which all the girls in the neighbourhood were invited; and it was determined to have it on the day of a great muster in Powhatan, that the young men, returning from the muster ground in the evening, might call and thus wind up the frolic with a dance. As soon as the arrangement was made, William received a hint from his uncle that "it would not do for him to leave his hands in the time of "pulling fodder."

About this time there had been evident symptoms of disturbance among the Indians. Robberies and murders had been committed by them on the whites, and some of their own people had been killed. Such of them as still pretending to be friendly, traded with the whites, or came into the settlement, were observed to be much more shy than formerly—to stay a shorter time, and to drink less, except one old man, who had been long remarked for his good feelings towards our people. I forgot what he was called by the Indians, but among the whites he went by the name of "old Tarrapin Jack." It had happened that one night, about the preceding Christmas, he was found lying drunk in the snow by William, who humanely took him on his shoulders and carried him home. This act the old man never forgot, and he lost no opportunity of showing his gratitude, by bringing William a deer, a wild turkey, a pair of moccasins, or the like. A few days before it had been rumoured that they had sent some of their chiefs down to Williamsburg to have a talk with the Governor, and to seek redress for the injuries they had received, but this was a feint, to put our people off of their guard.

About the dusk of the evening, when William had returned from the field and had seated himself at his solitary fireside, thinking only of the merry making that was going on among his friends on the other side of the river, and of his own hard destiny, old Tarrapin Jack rushed into the room and said "William you saved my life. I am come to save your Margaret's."

"How? what?" said William, in breathless agitation.

"Take your gun, and come down to the river" he answered. He then briefly informed William of the plan his countrymen had formed to attack the whites while so many of their men were attending the muster on the opposite side of the river—that they had endeavoured to conceal their designs from him—that the hour of attack was at hand, and they must cross the river immediately, so as to give the company assembled at Mr. Allen's notice to effect their escape, or assist in their defence.

In a moment William took down his musket, provided himself with ammunition, and he and his old friend were in the canoe paddling across the river. They had not proceeded far before William, whose eyes were fixed on the opposite shore, discovered that his uncle's house was on fire.

"I fear we are too late, but for mercy's sake, old man, paddle away," and the canoe almost leaped from the water.

"Stop," says the Indian, "I hear something."

"Oh paddle away, we have no time to listen," says William.

"Stop I say. Don't you hear a woman's cry?"

They suspended their operations, and looking towards the spot from whence the sound proceeded, they saw something in the water. They redouble their exertions, when a faint cry of "help!

help!" was heard, and as William stretched forth his arms to lay hold of the suffering object, it sunk, to rise no more. His first impulse was to plunge in after it, but old Tarrapin Jack restrained him, by reminding him of his Margaret. A similar cry, of "help! help!" again reached their ears. They were more fortunate now than before. The sufferer proved to be a woman, and William having lifted her into the canoe, and heard her say, "oh William, is it you!" he recognized the dear object of his present fears and exertions.

"Oh save the rest—oh save Polly—save my dear sister" she then cried in a louder tone. They paddled along in different directions, but they saw nothing, except one or two handkerchiefs or other pieces of female attire, which the stream had thrown against some of the rocks that rise above the water.

They learnt from Margaret, as soon as the poor girl could sufficiently compose herself, that a little after sunset, when they had finished their quilting, and had prepared themselves for the dance, they were all at once struck dumb with a loud and horrid yell, which they immediately knew to be the terrible war whoop of the Indians; and in the next minute a body of them rushed into the room, and began to lay about them with their tomahawks. That she and her sister Polly happening to be at that moment in the kitchen, superintending the preparations, ran off in an opposite direction to that from which they first heard the Indian cry, until they reached the river, with an intention of crossing it. They hesitated at first, but three or four of the girls who had affected the escape from the savages, having joined them, and said they might cross in safety, as the river was then unusually low, they made the attempt. They had got more than half way over, (as she judged,) by stepping or wading from rock to rock, when the one who was before, hearing the sound of the canoe, became alarmed, and got into a deep place, and those who were next to her attempting to draw her out, they were all drowned. Her sister and herself, alarmed and bewildered at this new disaster, soon lost their way, and found themselves in deep water up to their chins, and in their endeavours to extricate themselves, they got separated; Margaret then hearing her sister call out for help, as the canoe approached, she did so too, until they came to her assistance. See then implored them to seek among the rocks for her sister, at one moment insisting that she was not far off, and calling to her by name as loud as she could, and in the next, lamenting that she was dead.

While William was preparing to indulge her in a search, which he knew to be fruitless, old Tarrapin who had made no attempt to console the distressed girl, but had been looking and listening in every direction, now discovered a canoe coming towards them from the Goochland side; and having made his discovery known by a motion of his hand—"Hush, my dear Margaret," said William, "your life depends upon your silence;" and they both began to paddle with as little noise as they could in the opposite direction, towards Powhatan. A whoop, now heard from the other canoe, convinced them that they were seen and pursued. This appalling sound extorted from Margaret one exclamation of "oh save me! save me William." But he did not need any further stimulus to make him redouble his exertions. Yet what could two paddles avail against four? In spite of their almost preternatural efforts, it was clear that their pursuers would soon come up with them. The cries of the Indians redoubled as they approached. They were now within about five yards, when William, snatching up his musket, discharged it with so good an aim that two or three were killed or disabled, as their paddles were then reduced to two. His canoe, was now the swiftest, as it was the lightest, and in a few minutes they reached the Powhatan shore. Here they found a large body of militia assembled, and preparing to cross the river. Among them was Mr. Allen, who had been the agonized spectator of the destruction of his property, and the too probable murder of his family. He shed tears of mingled bitterness and joy when he beheld his daughter. After he had heard her sad recital, he concluded, that she was the only survivor of his late numerous family, and his surmise proved to be no more than the truth.

Affliction is a great humanizer of our affections, and in this way heaven brings good out of evil. Mr. Allen saw in his nephew the preserver of the only remnant of his family, and he now favoured the attachment of the young people, as much as

he had formerly opposed it. The only obstacle to their wishes being thus removed, William and his cousin were married. They inherited Mr. Allen's large estate, and their descendants are now among the principal people in the Old Dominion.

The good lady then went into a detail of different branches of the family, in which one was a general, another a judge, another a member of Congress, the particulars of which it is unnecessary to repeat, and concluded by observing that the ledge of rocks, on which the ill-fated damsels had attempted to escape from the tomahawk of the savage, had thereby obtained the name of *Maiden's Adventure*, which was afterwards extended to the neighbouring creek.

This tale, which was accompanied with many a sage reflexion and circumstantial detail occupied us until bed time, when we retired to a room and lodging altogether as inviting and comfortable as had been our supper. After an excellent breakfast, the next morning, on asking for our bill, we were told that a dollar a piece was the amount of the charge; by which we found, what I have often had occasion to remark before, that cleanliness is cheaper than dirt, and good cookery than bad,—why or wherefore, I leave to moralists and political economists to determine. Our horses showed by their looks and movements that they had fared no worse than their masters, and we rode back in high glee, congratulating ourselves on our delightful excursion, and resolving to recommend every one who visits *Maiden's Adventure* to inquire for Mrs. Burton's.

C. CRUIZE.

UNIVERSITIES.

Universities differ from Academies, in this respect. In the former are taught the principal sciences, and the most important auxiliary objects of study, whilst they possess the privilege of conferring the highest honors in all the chief sciences: the latter consist of an assemblage of literati, for some common scientific purpose, in which there is no connexion between teacher and pupil and no power of conferring degrees: this, at least, applies to the Academies, properly so called, but in modern times the term has been appropriated to the common schools of our country, which resemble the Academies of old and many of the existing academies—as the Academy of sciences of Paris—in little more than name. Universities differ, again, from Lycea, Gymnasia and special schools, one or more of the sciences, but not the whole, being taught there and no degrees conferred.

The Latin word *Universitas* came into use at the commencement of the thirteenth century and was first of all applied to the aggregate of the students or scholars and afterwards of teachers and pupils at a place—*Universitas magistrorum et scholarium*. Still later, the expression—*Universitas literarum* was added, to indicate that, at a University, all the principal and auxiliary sciences were taught. With the antients these institutions were called *Scholæ* or *Studia* and the latter term remained a long time common in Italy: in the older writers the expressions—*Studium Patavinum*, *Bononiense* are found for the Universities of Padua and Bologna. The period at which the first University was established in Europe is uncertain.

From the time of Charlemagne, who used every exertion to introduce the study of the sciences into the cloisters, and whose endeavours were assisted by the celebrated Alcuin, numbers of well informed individuals appeared, both belonging to the monks and the laity, and established scholastic institutions in various parts of Europe.

In Paris, at the commencement of the 12th. century, several such teachers arose who taught, more especially, philosophy, rhetoric and theology: these were not all of the monkish class, even the renowned Abelard, who was one of them, when he opened his school, was not yet a monk. The great reputation, which these teachers acquired, attracted pupils from all parts of Europe and hence arose, by degrees, the first University in Europe. It was not founded by any sovereign or endowed with any privileges: teacher and pupil were totally independent and could change the place of their residence at pleasure. Even its constitution was formed by themselves, but appears to have been silently favoured by the Government. In 1206, king Philippe Auguste conferred upon them some privileges; and they became formed into a corporation with the name *Universitas*.

About the same time as at Paris, and

probably, even earlier, the first teachers of medicine appeared at Salerno, in the kingdom of Naples and at Montpellier. The school at Salerno (*Schola Salernitana,*) became particularly celebrated abroad, for its dietetical precepts, written in Leonine verses. At Bologna the first instruction was given in Roman law: Irnerius (*Werner*) a German, taught it there at the commencement of the 12th. century and with great success.

What has been said of the origin of the oldest Universities of France and Italy applies also to those of England,—Oxford and Cambridge. A disturbance which broke out at the University of Paris and occasioned a dispersion of the teachers and students was advantagous to the English Universities—several learned persons being invited over by Henry III. who went to Oxford.

The first Universities in Germany were those of Prague founded in 1348 and of Vienna in 1356—formed after the model of that of Paris—and in 1409 the University of Leipzig.

The following table taken chiefly from the work of C. Meiners entitled "History of the rise and progress of the high schools of our part of the earth" (*Geschichte der Entstehung und Entwickelung der hohen schulen unsers erdtheils, Band i. p.* 252.) will exhibit the dates of the first establishment of the chief Universities of the world. To some it is doubtful whether the title of University ought to have been assigned, and whether they may not have been mere colleges, academies or gymnasia. Those, which had disappeared prior to the French revolution have been left out by Meiners, whilst others again have disappeared since he wrote (1802): this last deficiency we have attempted to correct as well as to add the date of the foundation of the principal Universities of our country.

UNIVERSITIES FOUNDED IN THE 12TH CENTURY.

Salerno, Bologna and Paris, perhaps also Montpellier could alone lay claim to the rank of privileged high schools in the 12th century.

UNIVERSITIES OF THE 13TH. CENTURY.

Naples	founded in	1224
Toulouse	"	1228
Salamanca	"	1240
Padua in the first half of the century.		
Montpellier	"	1289
Lisbon	"	1290 This University was soon afterwards translated to Coimbra.
Perugia, Marcerata		1290

Oxford and Cambridge certainly enjoyed the privileges of Universities in the 13th century: the period in which they were founded is unknown.

UNIVERSITIES OF THE 14TH CENTURY.

Rome	founded in	1303
Orleans	"	1305
Pisa	"	1338
Perpignan	"	1340
Valladolid	"	1346
Prague	"	1348
Pavia	"	1360
Angers	"	1364
Vienna	"	1365
Heidelberg	"	1387
Cologne	"	1388
Ferrara	"	1391
Erfurt	"	1392 dissolved in 1816.
Palma		
Siena		
Palermo		

UNIVERSITIES OF THE 15TH. CENTURY.

Krakau	founded in	1400
Leipzig	"	1409
Valencia	"	1410
St. Andrews	"	1411
Cremona	"	1413
Rostoch	"	1419
Louvain	"	1426
Caen	"	1433
Florence	"	1438
Bordeaux	"	1441
Catanea	"	1445
Glasgow	"	1454
Freyburg	"	1457
Nantes	"	1463
Bourges	"	1465
Treves	"	1472
Ingoldstadt	"	1472 since 1802 in Landshut.
Saragossa	"	1474
Upsal	"	1476
Tubingen	"	1477
Aberdeen	"	1477
Mainz	"	1477 broken up in 1798.
Copenhagen	"	1479

UNIVERSITIES OF THE 16TH. CENTURY.

Wittemberg	founded in	1502 dissolved and united with Halle in 1815
Seville	"	1504
Frankfort on the Oder		1506 dissolved and united with Breslau in 1810

Toledo	founded in	1518	
Marburg	"	1527	
Compostella	"	1532	
Lausanne	"	1536	
Koenigsberg	"	1544	
Messina	"	1548	
Jena	"	1558	
Rheims	"	1558	
Douay	"	1561	
Besancon	"	1564	
Gand	"	1569	
Leyden	"	1575	
Helmstadt	"	1576	dissolved in 1809
Altdorf	"	1578	
Oviedo	"	1580	dissolved in 1807
Olmutz	"	1581	
Wirzburg	"	1582	
Edinburg	"	1582	
Dublin	"	1591	
Wilna	"	1597	

UNIVERSITIES OF THE 17TH. CENTURY.

Parma	founded in	1601	
Cagliari	"	1606	
Giessen	"	1607	
Groeningen	"	1614	
Paderborn	"	1615	
Strasburg	"	1621	
Salzburg	"	1623	dissolved in 1810
Mantua	"	1625	
Osnabrueck	"	1630	
Utrecht	"	1634	
Trynau	"	1635	
Linz	"	1636	
Harvard University Massachusetts.		1638	
Aebo	founded in	1640	
Bamberg	"	1648	dissolved in 1804
Kiel	"	1665	
Urbino	"	1671	
Inspruck	"	1672	dissolved in 1810 restored in 1814.
Pamplona	"	1680	
William & Mary Virginia		1691	
Halle	founded in	1694	
Pernau	"	1699	
Piacenza			
Kiew			

UNIVERSITIES OF THE 18TH. CENTURY.

Yale, Connecticut	founded in	1700
Breslau	"	1702
Cervera	"	1717
Turin	"	1725
Goettingen	"	1734
Fulda	"	1734
Erlangen	"	1743
Nassau Hall New Jersey	"	1746
Columbia, New York	"	1754
University of Pennsylvania	"	1755
Moscow	"	1755
Brown University R. Island	"	1764
Sassari	"	1765
Milan	"	1766
Dartmouth College New Hampshire.	"	1769
Rutgers, New Jersey	"	1770
Clausenburg	"	1775
Bonn	"	1778
Dickinson, Pennsylvania	"	1783
Charleston S. Carolina	"	1785
Vermont	"	1791
North Carolina	"	1791
Williams' College, Mass.	"	1793
Greenville College, Tenn.	"	1794
Union College, New York	"	1794
Bowdoin, Maine	"	1794
Hampden Sydney Virginia	"	

Besides these, there have been founded in this country, during the present century, the following :—

Middlebury, Vermont	founded in	1800
Ohio University	"	1802
South Carolina	"	1802
St. Mary's Baltimore	"	1805
Nashville, Tennessee	"	1806
Washington, Pennsylvania	"	1806
Hamilton, New York	"	1812
Washington, Virginia	"	1813
Alleghany, Pennsylvania	"	1815
Virginia University	"	1819
Western University, Penn.	"	1820
Waterville, Maine	"	1820
Amherst, Massachusetts	"	1821
Columbia, Washington	"	1821
Augusta, Kentucky	"	1822
Miami University, Ohio	"	1824
Geneva, New York	"	1825
Washington, Connecticut	"	1826
Randolph Macon, Virginia	"	1829

Many of these cannot, however, be looked upon as Universities, but as large public schools, and ought, perhaps, to have been excluded from a list, in which the extensive establishments of Eton, Westminster, Harrow &c. have not obtained admittance: except that our colleges have the power of conferring degrees, whilst the celebrated schools to which we have referred do not possess that privilege.

The University of London—so called—for this reason, has not been admitted. Until its charter is obtained it can only be regarded amongst the great public schools.

Φ

COTTON CORDAGE.

We have seen no public document for a long time which has given us as much pleasure as the following correspondence between General Williams of South Carolina and the Secretary of the Navy. We can bear testimony, from our personal knowledge of the fact, that cotton *fishing lines* are more durable, in salt water, than those made of hemp, and we have long since expressed our surprise that cotton, since it had so fallen in price, had not been converted into cordage. Should the use of cotton cordage, that now promises so well, be confirmed by the fair trial of it that is proposed, it will have the double advantage of affording an additional vent for our cotton, the supply of which has lately increased faster than the demand, and of reducing the further importation of foreign hemp, if not of superseding it altogether. We do not suppose that the use of hempen cordage will be altogether dispensed with, if it is, as we believe, and as general Williams admits, stronger at first than cotton cordage; but our consumption of hemp would be so much diminished by the use of cotton, for small cordage, that it would not exceed the domestic supply, especially when the cultivators of it shall be induced to prepare it by *water rotting*, instead of *dew rotting*, as at present.

Q

Copy of a letter from General D. R. Williams to the Secretary of the Navy.

Society Hill, 23d. Sept. 1829.

To the Secretary of the Navy:

I ask leave with this, to present you a small sample of cotton cordage made here, for *bale rope*.

A pound weight of it makes so many more feet in *length* than hemp cordage of the same size, that it is cheaper at twenty-five cents a pound than that of hemp at 12 1-2 cents. for the particular purpose of which it is manufactured—a comparison of prices with tarred cordage will of course be much more in its favor. I think you will admit that it is a beautiful piece of cordage. If you shall see proper to test its *strength* with new hemp rope, you will probably find it to be weaker at first, but after both have been so long exposed to the weather as to render that made of hemp useless, that of cotton will probably be still good as cordage.

Cotton fishing lines have been found to be more durable than any other, both in salt and fresh water; in the form of twine, wrought into seines, and used into our rivers, it is alike superior. Coarse shoes made of it, and subject to the greatest exposure, are much more durable than those made with flax thread; indeed, every domestic test proves cotton to be more durable than either flax or hemp. Perhaps it stretches too much to be trusted for standing rigging; but for running, and especially for light sails, it may possibly prove superior to cordage made of any other substance. I have found it to last longer when served with a coat of warm tar.

How has it happened that cotton cordage has not yet been tried, even among our river craft? Is it not wholly owing to a general opinion that it is much more costly? Such I confess was mine, until a gentleman, judging more correctly, ordered three hundred weight of bale rope to be made of cotton yarns; from which it has been discovered to be the cheapest cordage with which we can rope our cotton bales.

If contrary to my hopes, it shall be judged unfit for rigging of any kind, there is a great variety of other purposes on ship board for which small cords are used, and to which it may be advantageously applied.

I am too well satisfied that your private wishes, not less than your public duties, prompt you to the use of this great, though depressed staple of our common country, to suppose it necessary to ask the patronage of your department for it.

Yours, respectfully,

DAVID R. WILLIAMS.

Navy Department, Oct. 6. 1829.

Sir: I have much pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of your letter of the 23d. ult. together with a small sample of cotton cordage made for "bale rope."

That you may be fully possessed of the views of the Department, in relation to this great staple of our country for naval purposes, I herewith transmit you a pamphlet containing a correspondence on the use of cotton canvass for the sails of ships of war or merchant vessels, &c.

The sample you have sent me, I frankly acknowledge, to be a handsome piece of cordage; and the information you have communicated, in relation to its strength, durability and cost, in comparison with the same article made of hemp, is very acceptable.

A fair experiment shall be made of cotton rope, for such parts of the rigging and outfits of a ship, as may appear most suitable, from the knowledge, at present possessed of its qualities. I am, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JOHN BRANCH.

The Hon. David R. Williams, Society Hill, S. C.

THE GERMAN LANGUAGE.—No. 4.

(*Continued from page 550.*)

Third period (1137—1347.)

During the reigns of the Suabian emperors of the Hohenstauf family, the first of whom, Conrad III. ascended the imperial throne of Germany in the year 1138 and the last, Conrad IV. died on the scaffold in 1268, a great deal was done for the improvement of the German language and literature. The poets who flourished at that period were generally called minnesingers from the subject of their songs—*minne* (love.) The poetry of that period had not, however, mere amatory sentiments for its object, but also the warlike exploits, and marvellous accounts of ancient heroes, their encounters with destructive monsters, the wars of famous kings and nations, their victories and defeats; every thing, in fine, that heroism can perform, or which can excite it, were called forth and newly adorned according to the taste and fashion of the age. These were presented by the minnesingers to their cotemporaries to delight and instruct them and rouse their energies to emulation. Poems on religious subjects, moral tales, fables &c. were also composed by them. Among the number of these poets were also emperors and other princes who made poetry the fashion and principal amusement of their courts. From that time the Allemannic or Suabian dialect, in which most of it was composed, became the language, by preference, of courtiers and men of education all over Germany. This Allemannic or Suabian dialect, not only more harmonious on account of the number of its vowels but also more copious and susceptible of being enriched and improved than the Frankish dialect formerly in use, was particularly adapted to express with happiness poetical sentiments of the tender passions. This dialect may, therefore, be considered the first general cause of that truly poetical period. Other causes may be found in the tournaments and other chivalric sports established by the emperors, and in the crusades which opened, in the holy land, to the German knights mixed with the lively and gay French and Italian warriors, a new world of never before known sensations and appearances which enlarged their knowledge, purified their taste, excited a desire for the more refined enjoyments of life they witnessed in the east, and thereby kindled the sacred flame of poetry in their breasts. The Troubadours or amatory poets of Provence, also exerted a great influence on Germany by the general renown of their compositions, so that the poetical energies of the Germans could not fail to be roused into full activity. If we add the high favours that poetry received from the most distinguished personages, emperors, kings and others, and especially from their ladies who crowned with their own hands the poets that came off victorious in those poetical combats which formed a considerable part of their courtly festivities, and the influence of whom was, at that period, so very powerful and extensive, it is no wonder that so many noble and generous knights should be inflamed for the art of poetry, which was called the gay science and thought particularly fit to be exercised by young and aspiring heroes.

At the age of seven the young nobleman, according to the custom of those times, was taken away from his mother by whom or under whose superintendence he had been brought up to piety and instructed in the religious practices of the day, and sent to the court of some prince or to the castle of some eminent knight where, for the most part, schools for young Athelings were established, in which he was fitted for his future pursuits in life, by exercises not only calculated to strengthen his limbs and give them nimbleness and agility but also to impart that literary knowledge then necessary towards forming a minnesinger.

We know, from some authors of that period, that such a school was established at the court of the emperor Frederick I. commonly called Barbarossa (Redbeard) (1162—1190). This emperor loved and favoured poetry in a high degree, and his

example excited emulation among all the princes and barons of distinction in Germany, not merely to encourage the art in others but to cultivate it themselves. Several Suabian emperors were minnesingers, such as Henry VI. and Conrad IV. At the courts of the Duke Leopold of Austria and the Landgrave Herrman of Thuringia the minnesingers were in high estimation.

The number of these poets, whose names have come down to us, amounts to more than three hundred, among whom the following are the most distinguished :—Wenceslaus, king of Bohemia, Otto, Margrave of Brandebourg ; Henry, Margrave of Misnia ; Henry of Waldeck, who translated Virgil ; Hartman of the Aue; Albrecht of Halberstadt, who translated Ovid ; Wolfram of Eschilbach, who wrote a poem on the Trojan war and two other epics entitled Titurel and Parcival; Henry of Ofterdingen, Nicolaus Klingsohr, Conrad of Wurzburg &c. &c.

The authors of some of the best epics are unknown, such as the famous poem of the Nibelungen or Nibellings (i.e. children of the mist, an ancient Germanic family of the north) and which probably Conrad of Warzburg only republished in a modernized form.*

The language of the minnesingers is characterised by picturesque imagery, strength, boldness, brevity and a pleasing naiveté of expression. They enriched it by a number of new words such as verbs formed of substantives, substantives of verbs and both nouns and verbs of adjectives. However, for want of proper nourishment by the study of the Greek and Latin classic writers this improvement in the language and literature of Germany was not of long duration. It had its rise and progress in the period of the crusades with the spirit of chivalry, and with this spirit it also declined. It sank by degrees until 1346 ; when the minnesingers had degenerated into those tasteless vulgar rhymsters called mastersingers, of whom we shall speak in our next number. B.

* See Museum p. 470.

UNIVERSITY OF BERLIN.

(*Continued from page 591.*)

ACADEMICAL LECTURES

4. PHILOSOPHICAL SCIENCE. The Encyclopædia of philosophical science, five times a week. The foundation of philosophy, including Dianocology and logic, or the theory of all knowledge, twice. Logic, five times. Logic and Metaphysics, five times. Foundation of Existence and Perception, weekly. Psychology, five times. Moral philosophy four times. Philosophy of the history of the world, four times Æsthetics, four times. Natural and state laws or the philosophy of law, four times. Pædagogics, three times. History of antient philosophy four times. History of Christian philosophy, five times.

5. MATHEMATICAL SCIENCE. Practical Geometry, twice a week. Introduction to Algebra, weekly. Analysis of finite series, and plane trigonometry, five times. Analytical trigonometry, twice. Theory of conic sections, three times. Doctrine of conic sections and the calculus of infinite series, five times. Differential calculus, three times. Differential and integral calculus four times. On the integration of equations with three variable quantities. On the application of the integral calculus to geometry, weekly. Analytical statics, three times. Dynamics three times. Theoretical astronomy, three times. Physical Astronomy, four times.

6. NATURAL SCIENCES.—General doctrine of nature, twice a week. Experimental physics five times. The same, twice. First part of the mechanical doctrine of nature.—On heat and light, three times. On electricity and magnetism three times. General chemistry, five times. Introduction to experimental chemistry weekly. Experimental chemistry, according to Berzelius, five times. Theoretico-analytical chemistry, twice. Practico-analytical chemistry, twice. On the chemical constituents of organized bodies with their application to medicine and pharmacy, twice. Organic chemistry with particular respect to pharmacy, three times. Chemistry of pharmaceutical inorganic preparations, weekly. Theoretical and practical pharmacy, five times. General physiology, six times. General and special physiology, six times. Physiology, sixtimes. General zoology, six times. Natural history of beasts of prey, twice. Entomology, twice. Vegetable physiology twice. Forest physics, twice. Mineralogy, six times. Examinations on Mineralogy, twice. The mineralogical part of the knowledge of soils for the forester and the agriculturist, twice.

7. Politics and administration of public do-

mains. Encyclopædia of the administration of public domains State law and politics four times a week. Prussian state law four times. On Finance, four times. Examination and recapitulation of objects of Political Economy, twice. Statistics of the States of Germany, twice. On the management of public affairs, twice. Encyclopædia of forest knowledge.* The political economy of forest knowledge, and forest finances, three times. Formation and valuation of forests, three times a week. Theoretical and practical examination on forest science in general, six hours a week.

8. History and Geography.—Universal history, five times a week. Fundamental features of general history, four times. History of the nations of antiquity, four times. The same, four times. Earliest history and historians of Rome, twice. Modern history, four times. History of the reformation, weekly. History of the Prussian state from the beginning of the 17th. century till the second peace of Paris, four times. Antient history of the march of Brandenberg. History of the North American free states Historical exercises. General Geography, five times. Mathematical Geography, twice. On the climates of the earth four times. Geography of Palestine, weekly. Hydrography of the South American coasts, weekly.

9. History of Arts.—On the buildings of the antients. Introduction to the knowledge of antient sculpture, weekly. Character of the different periods of modern art, twice a week. History of painting since the 13th. century, three times a week.

10. Philological Science.—First principles of the Greek and Latin languages. Metre, four times a week. General history of the belief of heathenish nations, six times. Mythology, four times weekly. Homer's Iliad book 5 to 7 elucidated, twice a week. Pindar's Olympic and Pythic odes elucidated, four times. The Eumenides of Æschylus, twice. Œdipus at Colonos and the Philoctetes of Sophocles, four times. Œdipus at Colonos four times weekly. The Phænomena of Aratus twice a week, with Astronomical exercises when the weather permits. Some orations of Socrates twice a week. Plato's Phædon, three times. The Poetics of Aristotle twice. The nicomachic ethics of Aristotle, twice. The books of Cicero, "De natura deorum," three times. Histories of Tacitus four times. Disputative exercises on philological subjects, twice. Sanscrit grammar, three times. Select episodes of the Maha Bharata and a fragment of the Hitopadesa, three times. The first principles of Arabic, twice. The Koran three times. The first principles of the Persian language, three times. The literary history of the middle ages and of modern times, four times. Literary history and bibliography of the middle ages and modern times, five times. Old German and old northern Mythology, twice. First principles of German grammar, five times. Gottfried of Strasburg's chivalric poem, Tristan and Isolde, elucidated, four times. On the Gothic dialect, weekly. Calderon's Comedy "La Dama Duende" elucidated, twice. The same by another, twice. Course of the French language three times. Milton's Paradise Lost with the English pronunciation, two hours weekly. On the English language.

11. Music and Gymnastics.—An Academical singing choir for church music. Instructions in fencing, vaulting, riding &c.

PUBLIC LITERARY INSTITUTIONS.

The Royal Library is open for the use of students, daily. The Observatory, Anatomical, Zootomical and Zoological Museum, Cabinet of Minerals, collection of surgical instruments and bandages, collections of casts and works of art, are also open to the inspection of the students—there is, besides, a Theologicaland a Philological seminary attached to the University where appropriate exercises are carried on.

* The conservation &c. of the woods, forests has become a separate science in Germany and is taught in all the Universities.

RELATIVE VALUE OF GOLD AND SILVER.

We are pleased to see that Congress, in the exercise of the power given them by the constitution to regulate the value of the current coin, seem about to correct their early error, of fixing the relative value of gold and silver. We allude to the bill lately introduced by Mr. Sandford into the Senate, which proposes to make copper and silver a legal tender only for small specified amounts, and which would have the effect of making gold the only standard metal; leaving the *relative* value of the two precious metals, where it ought to be left, to be regulated by the market.

As the greater part of our readers are not familiar with this subject, and its principles are not entirely obvious, we may be excused for making some remarks on it.

When Congress first passed a law to determine the weight and denomination of our coins, they followed the example of Great Britain and most other commercial

countries in fixing this relative value; for when they said that a dollar should contain so many grains of pure silver, ($371\frac{1}{4}$) and that an eagle should contain so many of pure gold ($247\frac{1}{4}$) and be equal to ten dollars, they thereby determined that the value of gold should be to that of silver as fifteen to one. And every one who had any payment to make had his choice to make it either in coin containing so many ounces of pure gold, or in that which contained fifteen times as many ounces of pure silver.

As the ratio of value thus fixed by law was very nearly the same as that fixed in the commercial market, the regulation would have been harmless, and even convenient, if the relative market price of these metals was permanent. But this is far from being the case.

Before the discovery of this continent the value of gold to silver in Europe was as twelve to one and even less. But that event which, by increasing the *quantity*, so greatly diminished the *value* of both metals, depreciated silver still more than gold, so as, about the middle of the last century, to make the proportion of gold to silver as $14\frac{1}{2}$ to 1,—at the end of the century, to about 15 to 1—and at the present day, in Europe, the difference is more than 16 to 1.

Now whenever the law undertakes to fix the proportionate value between the two metals, and the proportion it has adopted varies from that which prevails in the open market, it has the effect of limiting the circulation to the metal which is valued too low, and of driving the other out of the country, as well as out of circulation. Thus, supposing the relative value of the two metals be as 16 to 1, according to the course of trade, and but as 15 to 1 by law; every person who makes a payment in gold will lose one dollar in sixteen, of course he will avoid the loss, by paying in silver. In this state of things, those who have large quantities of gold bullion will not carry it to the mint, as they would lose two dollars on every three eagles; and those who hold gold coins have the same inducement to melt them into bullion, whenever they can procure a sufficient number of them to make it an object.

Besides, in the importation and exportation of the precious metals which are for ever going on together in all commercial countries, it will be, in the case supposed, more profitable to export gold than silver, and to import silver than gold. Thus gold in consequence of being undervalued, is certain to disappear from circulation.

Such is nearly the present state of things in this country, and if our banks would readily pay out their eagles, these coins would as certainly take their course across the Atlantic as do our cotton and tobacco. We do not mean to say that the nation incurs any greater loss by exporting gold than any thing else; but it certainly seems very preposterous for it to keep up so costly an establishment as a mint, for the purpose of putting a stamp on gold, that would be worth 5 or 6 per cent. more without it. There is a great convenience, moreover, in having gold, as well as silver, coins, of which benefit the country ought not to be deprived.

But the remedy for these mischiefs is very easy. Congress has nothing more to do, than to cease to attempt (what is utterly impracticable) to fix the relative value of the two metals permanently. Having determined the weight, fineness and denomination of the several coins, it may safely leave the value they bear to each other to the fluctuations of the market; and then there will be no inducement either to pay a debt or to receive it in one metal rather than the other, though gold should have so fallen, as for an eagle to be worth no more than *nine dollars and a half*, or though the contrary change of value should have taken place and the eagle be worth *ten dollars and a half*. Variations in value, it may be remarked, have taken place to the extent here mentioned, within the last thirty years.

But as, by this course, the coins of only one metal could be a legal tender, it would seem better adapted to the circumstances of this country that this metal should be *silver*, rather than gold, because it has always constituted the largest part of our metallic currency, and the disproportion is greater now than ever, in consequence of gold having been for some years undervalued by law. If gold was now to be made the only legal tender, *and the relative value between that and silver* not changed, it would have the effect of adding 6 per cent, and probably more, to every debt, in the country. We think that it would be

clearly better to make dollars the only legal tender, and silver coins the only standard of value by law, as they very nearly are in point of fact.

There is unquestionably an inconvenience in having gold coins of a fluctuating value, as would then be the case, and this circumstance would tend to lessen their circulation; but for this evil there is no adequate remedy, by reason of the fluctuations in their relative value, to which they are liable. You must either put up with this inconvenience, or be exposed to the yet greater of doing without gold currency altogether.

Nor is this all; for if in the variations of their value, gold should *fall* below the proposition fixed by law, *silver* would then become proportionally scarce, and large quantities of it would command a premium in the market, as was formerly the case in this country.

It is true that it would be very easy, at every coinage of gold, to adapt the quantity of metal to the variations in the relative value; so, for instance, as always to make the eagle intrinsically worth precisely ten dollars, at that time. But this expedient would but aggravate the mischief, as the eagles of every other coinage except that of the current year, would be worth more or less than ten dollars in the market, as they were lighter or heavier, and there might be as many prices as there were separate coinages. It would seem then, on the whole, better to leave gold, like iron, lead, salt, and in short every other commodity, to find its price in the market, according to the general principles of supply and demand.

Q

UNIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE.

Questions propounded in the various schools at the late public examination.

SCHOOL OF ANTIENT LANGUAGES.

Antient Geography.

1. Between what degrees of latitude, is antient "Hellas" comprised?—What is its whole area, and what that of the Peloponnesus separately? Mention the three great divisions of "Hellas," with the several districts contained in each.

2. Mark the boundaries of the Peloponnesus—the gulfs which indent its coasts—the sources and the course of its principle rivers. (in all instances adding the modern names, when there are such, corresponding to the antient.)

3. In what districts were the following towns (modern names?) Gytheium, and Olympia; (what games celebrated there, and what the date from which they are computed in chronology,) Naupactus; Nauplia; Eleusis; Coroneia; Pharsalus; Amphissa; Potidæa; Phlius?

4. Mark the northern and western boundaries of Thessalia; and name the mountains which stretch along its eastern coast, and the river and valley by which two of them are divided—state Herodotos' conjecture as to the way in which they were separated—where does the Cephisus empty? Where the Acehlous, and its modern name?

5. Where the island of Rhodos? Where was the city Rhodos built? What is the modern name of the birth place of Hippocrates?—The birth place Herodotos?—of Aristoteles?

6. When and from what cause occurred the "Æolic" emigration?—Where did the wanderers settle, and what limited their territory on the south?—Which of the islands did they possess?

7. Give the date of the "Ionic" emigration, and its cause. Compare the soil and climate of Ionia with that of Æolis.—Which was the most extensive commercial city of Ionia and which sent out most colonies?—Name a few of the chief Ionian cities.

8. Where is Sinope and whence colonized?—its modern name?—What colonies did it settle, and receive tribute from on the same coast? what was the principal source of its wealth and commerce?

9. What remarkable events in Grecian history—with the dates—are connected with the names of Salamis, Mantinéea, Coroneia Marathon, Platæa?

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